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ABSTRACT

This research report contains previews of research projects on four unrelated social science topics. The first research project, Personality Traits of Nixon and Ford as Seen by Political Science Students, sampled students at North Carolina University. The results indicated that Nixon was viewed as a rather negative person who is at odds with himself and others, while Ford was seen as a more positive person who gets along well with others and genuinely likes them. The second preview, The Meaning of Advertising Illustrations, sought to measure the effectiveness of illustrations in selected magazine advertisements. Although some results were inconclusive, in general there are different "meanings" given to an advertisement when the illustration alone has to communicate the message. The third preview, The Culture of Drinking in North Carolina: Preliminary Findings, compared college-student drinking patterns with parental religion, home drinking, parental drinking habits, and context of parental drinking. The fourth preview, Perceived Attributes of Superior Teachers: An Inquiry into the Giving of Teacher Awards, found that the superior teacher is one who is clearly competent in his field, concerned for his students' intellectual growth, and enthusiastic in bringing the field and the students together. (Author/DE)

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PERSONALITY TRAITS OF NIXON AND FORD AS SEEN BY POLITICAL SCIENCE STUDENTS

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In the Fall of 1974 students in an introductory course in Political Science were asked to describe the personality characteristics of the incumbent president of the United States, Gerald R. Ford, and the former occupant, Richard M. Nixon. To insure uniformity in the use of possible descriptive terms, a standard psychometric assessment device, the Adjective Check List (ACL) was employed. The ACL comprises 300 adjectives arranged alphabetically and a respondent can readily describe a subject by simply checking the terms that he believes to be descriptive of that person (Gough). It has been used, for example, to characterize historical personages like Washington and Lincoln (Gough and Heilbrun) and to study two leading figures in personality theory and psychotherapy, Sigmund Freud and Carl Gustav Jung (Welsh, a). A translated version of the ACL was used by Italian students to describe Lyndon B. Johnson when he was president (Gough and Meschieri). Thus, the ACL seemed to be a suitable instrument for use in the present study.

A sample of 50 was drawn from the 265 respondents and a tally made of the frequencies with which each adjective was used to describe the two men. These data are shown in Table 1 for Nixon and Table 2 for Ford as percentages of respondents employing each term listed in order of frequency. Adjectives checked by less than one-quarter of the students are not shown in these tables but terms *not* used at all in the descriptive task are given separately in Table 3 for Nixon and in Table 4 for Ford.

Personality characteristics attributed to the men by the class may be inferred from the tables by following the method of analysis suggested in the ACL Manual: "In many situations the greatest value of the list

Table 1. Adjectives USED in Describing Nixon

Percent	Adjectives
82	ambitious
74	evasive
68	determined
66	intelligent
64	deceitful, distrustful
60	bossy, egotistical, hard-headed
58	clever
56	anxious, bitter, conservative
54	aggressive
52	defensive, self-centered
50	active, demanding, emotional, impatient, stubborn
48	argumentative, arrogant, confused, greedy, nervous, sly
46	formal, headstrong, irresponsible, shrewd
44	impulsive
42	careless, changeable, dull, irritable, self-seeking, suspicious
40	forceful, moody, opportunistic, self-pitying
38	cold, cynical, daring, interests narrow, prejudiced, self-confident, selfish, worrying
36	aloof, dissatisfied, intolerant, opinionated, preoccupied, resentful, serious, undependable
34	awkward, complicated, confident, dignified, fearful, foolish, unrealistic
32	conceited, industrious, obnoxious, persistent, tense
30	capable, cautious, excitable, hard-hearted, high-strung, hostile, idealistic, temperamental, touchy, weak, withdrawn
28	absent-minded, adventurous, deliberate, despondent, quitting, self-punishing, unscrupulous, unstable
26	affected, assertive, autocratic, cowardly, dependent, discreet, enterprising, mature, organized

Table 2. Adjectives USED in Describing Ford

Percent	Adjectives
74	easygoing
72	active, good-natured
70	cheerful
66	adaptable
64	conservative, honest, intelligent
62	fair-minded, friendly
60	confident
56	conscientious, frank, self-confident
54	determined, forgiving, mature, natural
52	ambitious, outgoing, warm
50	cautious, civilized, dependable
48	calm, capable, clear-thinking, gentle, healthy, industrious, loyal, sincere
46	alert, appreciative, reasonable
44	considerate, logical, moderate, pleasant, practical, responsible, sociable, trusting
42	dignified, interests wide, optimistic, peaceable, rational, reliable, wholesome
40	relaxed, serious
38	affectionate, aggressive, mannerly, tolerant
36	commonplace, enthusiastic, kind, thoughtful
34	adventurous, couragious, energetic, masculine, organized, realistic, self-controlled, understanding
32	attractive, good-looking
30	anxious, changeable, conventional, efficient, enterprising, helpful, individualistic, wise, sympathetic
28	independent, mild, obliging, patient, reserved, simple, steady, tactful
26	cooperative, dependent, generous, handsome, humorous, idealistic, modest, polished, strong

Table 3. Adjectives NOT USED in Describing Nixon

Percent	Adjectives
0	attractive, good-looking, handsome
0	flirtatious, sexy
0	effeminate, feminine
0	sympathetic, praising
0	generous, thrifty
0	easy-going, jolly, witty
0	wholesome
0	stolid

Table 4. Adjectives NOT USED in Describing Ford

Percent	Adjectives
0	bitter, complaining, fault-finding, fussy, irritable, nagging, sulky, whiny
0	coarse, loud, noisy, quarrelsome, rude, tactless, thankless
0	cruel, hostile, resentful, unfriendly, unkind, unscrupulous
0	apathetic, indifferent, lazy, quitting, unambitious
0	infantile, reckless, show-off, slipshod, undependable
0	conceited, smug
0	shallow, unintelligent
0	cynical, distrustful
0	greedy, stingy, spendthrift
0	ingenious
0	effeminate, feminine
0	cowardly
0	despondent
0	spunky

may accrue from noting, pondering, or analyzing those specific words which an individual or group has checked as self-descriptive" (Gough and Heilbrun, 4). It is of interest to note a cluster of five terms checked by at least half of the students for both men: *active, ambitious, conservative, determined,* and *intelligent.* But these traits occur in a context of self-centered striving for Nixon while the same traits appear in a climate that is more relaxed and outgoing in the case of Ford.

In general the picture of Nixon is rather negative and he appears as someone at odds with himself and with others. Half the students or more use the adjectives agressive, anxious, bitter, bossy, clever, deceitful, defensive, demanding, distrustful, egotistical, emotional, evasive, hard-headed, impatient, self-centered, and stubborn to describe him. He may accomplish much because of his ability but he is not above taking advantage of others or at least disregarding them in reaching some goal which when attained is accompanied by feelings of uneasiness and insecurity.

By contrast the view of Ford is a more positive one of a person who gets along well with others and genuinely likes them. He seems to be relaxed and secure in his interpersonal relations perhaps because he trusts others and expects, in turn, to be trusted and accepted by them. Adjectives preferred by at least half the students are adaptable, cautious, cheerful, confident, conscientious, civilized, dependable, easygoing, fair-minded, forgiving, frank, friendly, good-natured, honest, mature, natural, outgoing, self-confident, and warm.

These portraits may be supplemented by noting adjectives listed in Tables 3 and 4 which were not considered descriptive by any of the students. Neither man was seen as *effeminate* or *feminine*[1] but the other non-descriptive terms are quite different in character and reinforce the implications of the descriptive adjectives seen in the other tables.

Finally, the contrast in characteristics of the two men is emphasized in Table 5 where adjectives showing maximum differences in frequencies of ascription are listed. All of the terms for Nixon from *evasive* to *sly* seem adverse and unpropitious while the traits of Ford from *easygoing* to *wholesome* seem favorable and auspicious.

A psychometric comparison of the two men was made by considering the adjectives listed in Tables 3 and 4 as if they were individual records and scoring them for the 24 regular scales of the ACL. The raw scores are expressed in standard score form (T-scores) for the norm group given in the test manual (Gough & Heilbrun: tables for category C). T-scores for these scales are given in Table 6 in the order of placement on the ACL profile sheet which is customarily employed to depict the scale configuration in graphic form. It may be noted that although the Number Checked score is a meaningful variable for an individual record, it is an arbitrary value for the present cases. That is, the raw score of 98 (T=50) for Nixon

Table 5. Adjectives Showing Maximum Differences in Description of Nixon and Ford

% Nixon	Adjectives	% Ford	% Difference	% Nixon	Adjectives	% Ford	% Difference
74	evasive	6	68	0	easygoing	74	74
64	distrustful	0	64	8	good-natured	72	66
56	bitter	0	56	8	cheerful	70	62
60	bossy	4	56	2	honest	64	62
60	egotistical	4	56	6	fair-minded	62	56
60	hard-headed	8	52	8	friendly	62	54
48	greedy	0	48	2	natural	54	52
48	arrogant	2	46	4	forgiving	54	50
52	self-centered	6	46	4	dependable	50	46
46	irresponsible	2	44	12	frank	56	44
48	argumentative	6	42	8	outgoing	52	44
50	impatient	8	42	8	warm	52	44
42	irritable	0	42	24	adaptable	66	42
46	shrewd	4	42	6	sincere	48	42
48	sly	6	42	0	wholesome	42	42

Table 6. T-Scores for Nixon and Ford on Regular ACL Scales*

Scale	T-Scores	
	Nixon	Ford
Defensiveness	22	59
Favorable	5	59
Unfavorable	91	41
Self-confidence	43	54
Self-control	31	61
Liability	36	39
Personal adjustment	3	59
Achievement	47	54
Dominance	51	53
Endurance	35	55
Order	36	53
Intraception	7	56
Nurturance	3	60
Affiliation	16	55
Heterosexuality	22	55
Exhibition	61	44
Autonomy	79	40
Aggression	84	38
Change	39	48
Succorance	67	39
Abasement	41	48
Deference	27	61
Counseling readiness	59	46
Total Number Checked†	50	49

*For the norm group T-scores are calculated to give mean=50, standard deviation=10.

†Not applicable since number of adjectives was arbitrarily selected to fall at the average of ACL norm group.

and 95 (T=49) for Ford is a consequence of listing only those adjectives used by more than 24 percent of the respondents and was employed partly because these scores would fall near the average of the norm group for category C.

The name of each scale conveys the general nature of the personality characteristics being assessed by that scale but the manual should be consulted for a more detailed explanation of the psychological and personological implications as well as empirical correlates of each scale. It will be profitable to ponder these meanings as was suggested for the adjectives themselves. For example, if the manual descriptions of the four highest scales for Nixon (Aggression, Autonomy, Succorance, and Unfavorable) are read in conjunction with the four lowest scales (Favorable, Personal Adjustment, Nurturance, and Intraception) several common themes emerge. One thread running through the descriptions is that of egocentricity: self-aggrandizing, self-centered, conceited, disregards feelings of others. A second common theme has implications of danger: disruptive, threat to others, headstrong, undercontrolled, intemperate, aggressive. Other themes include skeptical, anxious, and clever.

A counterpart analysis of Ford's high scales (Self-control, Nurturance, and Deference) with the low scales (Aggression, Succorance, and Liability) gives a quite different picture. It is one of allocentricity, admirable in its own way, but perhaps tempered by too much restraint: loyal, solicitious, benevolent, dependable, conforming, conventional, over-controlled, self-disciplined, organized, patiently diligent, bland, phlegmatic.

The adjective protocols of the two subjects were also scored for special scales developed in a study of creativity and intelligence that have been interpreted in a two-dimensional personality model (Welsh, b). The first dimension, "origence," contrasts those who prefer a structured and well-organized situation (low scores) with those who are more at home in an unstructured and open-ended milieu which they can order in thier own personal way (high scores). The second dimension, "intellectence," differentiates between a predilection for practical and pragmatic approaches to problems (low scores) and an abstract attitude leading to concern with generalized principles of comprehension (high scores). These dimensions are independent and four personality types can be generated by their conjoint relationship. It has been found, for example, that persons low on both dimensions are generally extraverted in temperament and are socially participative and outgoing in manner. Individuals high on both dimensions, on the other hand, are introverted and manifest a strong need for autonomy and personal detachment. Although different occupations and professions typically occupy different areas of the two-dimensional space, there is a tendency within vocations for the most original, imaginative, and creative members to fall relatively higher on both dimensions than others in the group.

Nixon and Ford are quite opposite in their locations on these dimensions with the former falling quite high on both dimensions and the latter lying

low on both. The relative position of these two men can be judged by their relative standing as compared with other individuals and groups as shown in Table 7. Freud and Jung are clearly the most intellectent individuals shown there but Nixon is not far below them on this dimension. He is, however, the most origent followed farily closely by drama students.[2] Ford is far below the last groups on intellectence (college athletes and journalism students). He is also some distance from the least origent groups, the control group of architects and the research scientists group.

Table 7. Special ACL Scale Difference Scores on Intellectence and Origence for Individual Cases and Some Representative Groups

	Intellectence	Origence	N*
Freud	+48	+16	
Jung	+25	+11	
Research scientists	+21	-13	45
Nixon	+20	+26	
Creative architects	+15	+ 1	40
Control architects	+11	-15	41
College leaders	+ 9	- 8	54
Librarians	+ 8	0	131
Drama students	+ 6	+20	15
Practicing newsmen	+ 4	+ 6	41
Psychology students	+ 3	+ 5	143
Norm group	0	0	528
College athletes	- 5	+ 5	132
Journalism students	- 5	+13	31
Ford	-22	-24	

*Number of subjects in group.

These positions complement and reinforce the personality characteristics associated with the regular ACL scales. It would be expected that Nixon's strong need for independence and autonomy coupled with a lack of social and affiliative tendencies would dispose him to a situation in which he

assumed control and tended to disregard the wishes of others. Ford seems to be quite opposite in character and temperament; his genuine liking for other persons and need for social interaction may cause him to be less assertive than may be necessary in some circumstances and often to defer to others.

Students participating in the study were also asked to classify themselves by party preference, college class, age, race, and sex. In subsequent research using the entire group of respondents differences in perceptions of the Nixon and Ford personalities within these subgroups will be explored and analyzed.

NOTES

[1]The term, *masculine*, was checked by 34 percent for Ford and by 10 percent for Nixon.

[2]Note should be taken that Nixon, Ford, Freud, and Jung have been categorized by others; for the groups reported in the table, personality characteristics have been self-classified by the subject.

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THE MEANING OF ADVERTISING ILLUSTRATIONS

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The primary purpose of an advertisement is to interpret the want-satisfying attributes of the product in terms of the needs of the consumer. In other words, at the base of every ad is an idea that says something important to the reader. The idea can sometimes be communicated solely through the use of verbal copy. It is often the case, however, that an illustration helps the copy and headline communicate the essential idea.

To accomplish that, the illustration should meet certain criteria. One is simplicity: an illustration should convey a single idea and make it possible for the reader to grasp that idea almost immediately. The illustration must also be relevant to the idea the advertisement attempts to deliver. In a similar vein, the illustration must have meaning for the reader or the effort will be wasted. Finally, the illustration must convey the desired image of the product. This is essential because consumers buy more than the product--they buy its image as well.

Therefore, an effective illustration conveys a simple and relevant image of the product to the consumer. The degree of effectiveness is the extent to which the reader grasps the intended idea. This exploratory and experimental study sought to measure the effectiveness of illustrations in selected magazine advertisements.

Smith and Engel showed subjects two versions of a car ad--one with a female model used for attention purposes only and the other without the female model but identical in all other respects. Their results "strongly suggest that inclusion of the female model influences people's perception in various ways." Subjects who saw the ad with the model rated the car more appealing, more lively, more youthful, better designed, more expensive, faster, less safe, and more powerful.

In a similar study, Stedman reported that "non-sexual illustrations were more effective in producing recall of brand names than were sexual illustrations and this became more pronounced with the passage of time." This was more true of persons favorably disposed toward the use of sex in advertising. The results of the two studies are not as contradictory as they first seem: Smith and Engel measured subjects' ratings of the product's features while Stedman measured brand recall, immediately after exposure and then a few days later.

METHOD

Twenty full-page, four-color advertisements were systematically selected from issues of Newsweek, Sports Illustrated, Woman's Day and Family Circle. These magazines were selected because it was felt they would contain similar-sized advertisements for representative consumer products. Selection of the advertisements themselves was based on the desire to obtain a representative sample of products advertised in consumer magazines and which--in the opinion of the investigators--best lent themselves to the test of the concepts and methods used in the study.

Subjects were juniors and seniors in certain journalism and psychology courses. All students in a particular class were in the same experimental condition. We had no reason to believe that there were any relevant differences between subjects in the two groups. Some subjects in both groups were "advanced" advertising students--taking at least their second advertising course.

The advertisements were photographed on 35 mm color transparencies and projected for 90 seconds on a screen at the front of the classroom. In the control condition, subjects were shown the ads as they appeared in the magazines. In the experimental condition, all copy and headlines were masked with black paper on the original ad before it was photographed. The reason for masking was to ascertain how much "meaning" of the ad was communicated by the illustration alone. The ads were presented in the same order for both conditions. In the masked condition subjects were told that the ads had been altered but that they were still to evaluate them as if they were regular ads.

As subjects viewed each ad, they completed a questionnaire which began with open-ended questions asking: (1) the single word or phrase that first comes to mind when they saw the ad; (2) the single word or phrase which identified the basic idea they thought the ad was trying to communicate; and (3) the product benefit given the most emphasis in the ad. Subjects also rated pleasing, effective, pleasant, believable, simple, and interesting. The purpose of the scales was to attempt to measure what effect the masking procedure had upon the evaluation of the ads.

RESULTS

We analyzed the effectiveness of the illustrations by comparing the modal responses of the unmasked condition group to those of the masked condition group. Those modal responses were in answer to the question: In a single word or very brief phrase, what is the basic idea you think this advertisement is trying to communicate? Although the question was the same in both conditions, in the masked condition, the question sought responses to the illustrations alone since the copy and headlines were masked. The answers to the questions were combined into the response categories reported in Table 1, which lists the modal verbal responses and significant differences in the semantic differential means. These differences are reported in the column in which the mean was higher.

Johnny Walker. The results suggest the illustration was communicating something different from the message of the headline and the sub-head. Since one of the "meanings" or modal responses in the unmasked condition matched the headline (*a special gift*), it seems at least part of the meaning of the illustration was dependent upon the headline.

Four Roses. The modal response was stronger (higher percentage) in the masked condition, and this suggests the illustration carried the dominant meaning and it was not dependent upon the headline (*prepare to be underwhelmed*). The increased strength in the masked condition suggests the headline was detracting from the effectiveness of the illustration. One could argue, of course, that the headline idea was somewhat abstract and therefore difficult to illustrate.

Kools. When the headline--Kools--was masked, the strength of the *coolness,* response decreased. In a sense, then, the illustration was apparently not communicating quite the same thing as the headline.

Smokehouse Almonds. The responses did not match the headline idea of *flying to fame on jet airplanes.* The significantly higher rating on the *pleasant* scale was apparently due to the presence of the masked area on the ad, since it did detract from the aesthetics of the ad. Such effects were by no means universal, however. In many ads, there were no differences and in some the masked version was rated more favorably.

Beefeater Gin. The modal responses did not match the headline idea of *impress yourself.* In other words, the headline and the illustration apparently were not communicating the same idea. The higher rating for *effectiveness* for the unmasked condition is not as easy to explain. It is probably because the illustration did not carry much meaning and the subjects were confused, leading them to consider the entire ad less effective. It is not clear why this did not occur more often, however.

Table 1. Modal Verbal Responses and Significant Differences in Semantic Differential Ratings (in percent)

	Unmasked		Masked	
Johnny Walker Red Label Scotch	"Special, Gift"	19	"Sex"	28
	"Good Product"	16	"Special, Gift	17
	"Good Times"	16		
	"Women"	14		
Four Roses Premium Whiskey	"Good Times, Fun Times"	38	"Good Times, Fun Times"	46
Kool Cigarettes	"Coolness"	29	"Fresh, Refreshing"	39
	"Fresh, Refreshing"	26		
Blue Diamond Smokehouse Almonds	"Good Product"	19	"Compatible"	36
	"Party Food"	19		
	Pleasant[a] *			
Beefeater Gin	"Quality"	31	"Coolness"	25
			"Drink the Product"	16
	Effective *			
	Pleasant *			
	Simple †			
Chevrolet Nova	"Roominess"	38	"Family Car"	17
			"Unknown"	14
	Effective †			
	Pleasant *			
	Believable †			
	Simple **			
Marlboro Cigarettes	"Masculinity"	43	"Masculinity"	61
Book of Knowledge	"Learning"	45	"Learning"	51
	Pleasing *			
	Effective **			
	Believable *			
Oldsmobile	"Choice"	24	"Roominess"	16
	"Roominess"	14	"Appearance, Style"	12
			"Travel"	10
Kodak Pocket Instamatic	"Compactness"	52	"Memories"	23
			"Easy"	23
J & B Scotch	"Warm"	52	"Warm"	33
			"Relaxing"	20
American Gas Association	"Clean"	31	"Daydreaming, Solitude"	25
	Effective †		"Unknown"	20
	Believable *			
Seagram's 7 Crown	"Fun, good times"	40	"Fun, good times"	54
	"American"	33		

Nova. This was another ad in which the illustration apparently had little meaning apart from the headline ad. Masking the headline (*roominess*) and copy apparently confused the subject, who responded with *unknown* almost as frequently as *family car.* It is another case of the intended meaning of the illustration not coming across very clearly. This is probably reflected, too, in the higher *effective* and *believable* ratings given the unmasked version. The masking's effect upon the appearance of the ad was evidently reflected in the *pleasant* and *simple* ratings.

Marlboro. Mariboro ads have apparently earned some sort of universal meaning--masculinity. There is nothing in the headline idea (*come to where the flavor is...*) about masculinity but that was the modal response for both conditions. The stronger response in the masked condition suggests the headline was detracting from the meaning of the illustration. It is almost as if people automatically think *masculinity* when they see a Mariboro ad and a headline such as this one weakens that response.

Book of Knowledge. Much of the copy was superimposed over the illustration, which meant that the masking altered the ad and probably accounted for the lower ratings on the *pleasing* scale. Since there did not appear to be much confusion about the meaning of the ad even in the masked condition, the aesthetics of the masking apparently accounted for the higher ratings for the unmasked condition on the *effective* and the *believable* scales.

Oldsmobile. One of the modal responses in the unmasked condition--*choice*--did not match the headline idea but the illustration alone apparently did not do an effective job of communicating that meaning, as evidenced by the polymodal nature of the responses in the masked condition.

Kodak. This is another example in which the modal response in the unmasked condition matched the headline idea but the illustration was not very effective in communicating that meaning without the headline.

J & B Scotch. This was somewhat unique among all the ads--the modal response was the same for both conditions, but the strength decreased in the masked condition. That response did correspond to the headline idea, however, which suggests the meaning of the illustration was dependent upon the headline.

American Gas Association. This ad demonstrated the problem of trying to select an illustration for an abstract idea--a clean environment. With the headline present in the unmasked condition, the modal response matched the headline--*cleanliness.* The inability of the subjects in the masked condition to ascertain even the sponsor of this ad apparently led to the bimodal responses of *daydreaming or solitude* and *unknown.* This same fact probably accounted for the higher *effective* and *believable* ratings given the unmasked condition.

Seagram's. The modal response was the same in both conditions but it was stronger in the unmasked condition, where another response--*American*--did match the headline idea.

Parker Pens. One of the modal responses in the unmasked condition--planning and design--was substantially stronger in the masked condition. This response matched the headline idea even though it was weaker when the headline was present than when it was removed.

Raleigh Cigarettes. The headline idea--mildness--was reflected in one of the bimodal responses in the unmasked condition but it disappeared completely in the masked condition, which suggests the headline and the illustration were not communicating the same idea. This ad is unusual because the masked condition was rated significantly higher on both the *simple* and the *interesting* scales. Subjects may have felt the ad was somewhat cluttered with the copy overlapping the illustration and that the masking made the ad more attractive.

Viceroy Cigarettes. The headline talked about taste but the modal responses for both conditions were masculinity, and the response was stronger in the masked condition. The discrepancy between the headline and the illustration may also have accounted for the higher *believable* rating for the masked version.

Ronrico Rum. Only the response of change or switch in the unmasked condition matched the headline idea. That response disappeared in the masked condition, however, suggesting the illustration was not very effective in communicating this idea without the assistance of the headline. *Strength* was one of the bimodal responses in the masked condition and this is probably an unintended and undesirable connotation for a liquor advertisement. It is difficult to explain the higher *pleasant* rating on the unmasked version, since the masking blended into a dark background in the ad.

Mercury Montego. This was another ad in which the illustration apparently did not do an effective job of communicating the headline idea without the headline. The modal response of the unmasked version matched the headline but disappeared when the headline was masked. The higher *simple* rating for the masked version apparently resulted from the fact that the masking over the lower copy blended into dark colors in the ad.

Timex. The headline idea of accuracy was weaker in the masked condition, suggesting again that the illustration was not very effective by itself.

Rose's Lime Juice. Almost the reverse was true in this ad. The headline idea of versatility was weak in the unmasked condition but was stronger in the masked version. This suggests the headline seemed to detract from the effectiveness of the illustration.

To summarize, in some ads, the modal response was the same in both the unmasked and the masked versions, but the strength or frequency of that modal response increased when the copy and headline were masked. In each of these ads, the modal response matched the headline idea. In one ad, the modal response was the same in both conditions (and corresponded to the headline idea) but the strength of the response decreased when the headline was masked. In the rest of the ads, the modal response was different in the two versions, suggesting the headline and the illustration were not communicating the same idea. In two of these ads, the modal response did not match the headline idea even in the unmasked condition. In the rest, the modal response of the unmasked condition matched the headline idea but changed, of course, in the masked condition.

DISCUSSION

The focus of this study was on the communicative effectiveness of illustrations in magazine advertisements. It is important to remember that illustrations have other purposes besides working with the headline to communicate the idea of the advertisement. Indeed, these may have been the intended function of the illustrations which seemed to carry a different meaning than the headline. It is also true that some headline ideas are more abstract and more difficult to illustrate.

Speaking of the headline, we soon realized it was difficult to separate the headline from the illustration. Consequently, we sometimes did not know if we were seeing the effect of the illustration or the headline. Future research might test the communicative power of the headline when the illustration is removed--for those cases in which the headline is intended to communicate some idea about the product.

We are still not certain about the unintended effects of masking portions of the advertisement. The evidence from the semantic differential scales was inconclusive in this regard, and we are considering other means of removing the influence of the headline or the illustration.

Finally, of course, there is the question of external validity. Newmiller specifically studied the effect of the method of presentation--transparency projection versus "through-the-book"--and reported the "evaluation of magazine advertisements on a semantic differential measure is significantly effected by the method used to present the ads to the subjects" (784).

We felt, however, that the newness of the method used in this study--the masking of the headline and copy--justified the projection method. Our intention was to test the method with groups via projection and then proceed to the more realistic through-the-book method of testing magazine advertising. We felt more justification when we looked at our results, for the

manipulation of the stimuli under the same condition of screen projection did produce differences. Our intention was not to predict the communication effectiveness of the ads and the illustrations but to ascertain if there were different "meanings" of the ad when the illustration had to communicate the message by itself.

APPENDIX

Johnny Walker Red Label Scotch. Black background. Female model holding gift carton of JWRL. Headline at top of illustration reads "Because you're mine." Slogan below the illustration reads: "Johnny Walker Red. The world's favorite scotch for your favorite person." Masking does not alter the illustration.

Four Roses Premium Whiskey. Illustration takes up about one-fourth of the ad. Young couple cozily at piano keyboard. Headline: "Prepare to be underwhelmed." Subhead above it reads: "Tired of heavy-handed ideas?" Masking does not alter the illustration.

Kool Cigarettes. Outdoor scene with rainbow. Package of Kools at the end of the rainbow. Subhead at top: "Now from Kool, for low-tar smokers looking for taste." Under that, in largest letters, the headline: "Kool Milds." Subhead below that: "The taste of extra coolness with lowered tar, too." Closing line below the pack: "Enjoy a cooler kind of mild." The product name is clearly visible on the package in the illustration. Since most of the background is dark, the masking does not greatly alter the illustration.

Blue Diamond Smokehouse Almonds. Dish of almonds, two product packages (a can and a box) surrounded by various kinds of drinks, including a pitcher. Headline is small at top of page (copy is at top of illustration): "Smokehouse Almonds...They flew to fame on the jets!" The masking does alter the illustration.

Beefeater Gin. Open bottle. Empty ice cube tray, martini pitcher and glass. No copy. Only the headline: "Impress yourself." The masking does alter the illustration.

Chevrolet Nova. Copy above illustration, which appears to be a typical New England village. Car parked in foreground with hatch opened. A minister, a young couple with a baby, and another woman are standing at the rear of the car. Man is holding umbrella. Between two blocks of copy is an insert showing only the open hatch. Headline at top of ad: "New Nova. With a big back door and a six-foot floor." The masking does alter the illustration.

Marlboro Cigarettes. A "typical" Marlboro ad. Western scene with cattle in the background. In foreground are two men, obviously cowboys. Two Marlboro packs in foreground. No copy, only the headline and the usual cigarette warnings. Headline: "Come to where the flavor is...Marlboro Country." Masking does alter the illustration.

Book of Knowledge. Illustration of little boy squatting and reading volume F of the Book of Knowledge. Shoes and socks are off and beside him, superimposed over part of the illustration is a listing of words beginning with F: frogs, flowers, farms, fossils, feudalism, foreign aid, flouridation. Copy below illustration. Headline above copy: "Kids and the new Book of Knowledge grow up together." Masking does alter the illustration.

Oldsmobile. Headline at top of ad: "From Oldsmobile for '73...Two honest station wagons and...(headline continued below illustration)...one little imposter." Illustration shows two Oldsmobile station wagons parked in a field next to a stream. Main copy block is below the main illustration. In the middle of the copy block is an insert photo of the Oldsmboile Omega hatchback. Masking the copy does not alter the illustration.

Kodak Pocket Instamatic. Illustration covering entire ad is upper torso close-up of woman with camera at her eyes, obviously taking a picture. Copy below headline on left side. Next to copy on the right side is an insert--a photo presumably taken with the camera. Headline: "The little camera that takes big pictures." Masking the copy and headline does mask the illustration.

J and B Scotch. Illustration takes up about the bottom two-thirds of the ad. Roaring fireplace in soft-focus background. In foreground is bottle of J and B and a glass with ice and scotch in it. In upper left corner of ad is a sketch of a skier. No copy, only a subhead, "The pleasure principle," followed by the headline, "Come out of the cold and into the warmth." Masking the headline does not alter the illustration.

American Gas Association. Headline at top of ad: "More natural gas can give us a cleaner world. But it's going to cost more." Illustration then takes up about two-thirds of the ad. Huge, old tree with little boy lying on one of the branches and looking up into the sky. Closing at lower right: "Gas: clean energy for today and tomorrow." Copy block on left two-thirds of page below illustration. Masking the copy and headline does not alter the illustration.

Seagram's 7-Crown Whiskey. Illustration covers bottom three-quarters of ad. Many people at a political headquarters or celebration, evidenced by flags and posters. Looks like a victory party. Head at top of copy on top of illustration: "Seagram's 7-Crown. It's America's Whiskey." Product is visible in the illustration. Masking the headline and copy does not alter the illustration.

Parker Pens. Illustration covers top two-thirds of ad. Blueprint drawings of pen, with the pen superimposed over the blueprints. Headline under the illustration and above the copy block: "First soft tip pen designed for giving. The Parker 75." Masking the headline and copy does not alter the illustration.

Raleigh Cigarettes. Large illustration takes up about the middle three-quarters of ad. Illustration is a young man and woman outdoors in a field, sitting down. Inset photo of package. Copy insert describes bracelet available for coupons. Headline at top of ad: "Spend a milder moment with Raleigh." Subhead: "Highest quality tobaccos--specially softened for milder taste." Masking the copy and headline does not greatly alter the illustration.

Viceroy Cigarettes. Illustration--a race driver with car in background--covers the entire ad. Headline superimposed over the illustration: "Get a taste of what it's all about. Get the full taste of Viceroy." No copy. Driver has a "Viceroy" patch on his coveralls and a product package is visible. Masking the headline does alter the illustration.

Ronrico Rum. Illustration covers the entire ad. Fist holding what is apparently a daiquiri thrust forward at reader. Bottle of Ronrico in the background. Headline next to the glass: "Break the Bacardi Habit." Slogan at the bottom of the illustration: "Ronrico. The rum with the bright taste." Since the background is black, the masking does not alter the illustration.

Mercury Montego. Illustration fills the entire page, with the copy superimposed. Car is on a road next to a field in which there are several horses. Young couple standing next to car. Across the top of ad are five small illustrations, each with its own copy block beneath. This strip describes the filming of the horses. Headline above the car. "We filmed wild horses from a moving 1973 Mercury Montego to demonstrate our personal size car has the ride of a big car." Other copy superimposed over the road in front of the car. The masking of the copy blends into the background and does not alter the illustration masking of the headline and the copy at the top does not alter the illustration.

Timex Watch. Futuristic illustration of a very large watch on a desolate, lunar landscape between two large crystals. Copy superimposed over the foreground next to the watch band. Large head across top of page: "The time machine. $125." Subhead under it: "A micro-computer inside keeps it accurate to within 15 seconds a month." The masking does alter the illustration.

Rose's Lime Juice. Illustration covers entire ad. Bottle of Rose's standing among what appear to be several varieties of gimlets. Head above the bottle: "The Gimlet." Subhead: "Anyway you like it, but always with Rose's." Very small copy below. Masking does alter the illustration.

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THE CULTURE OF DRINKING IN NORTH CAROLINA: PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

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During 1974 and 1975 we investigated the culture of drinking and the characteristics of North Carolina's societal reaction to the use of alcohol. Our continuing research project in this region of the South is entitled, "Drinking, Culture, and Law in North Carolina."[1] Drinking in American society is inextricably bound up with the law because of the culturally and politically defined deviations associated with drinking such as public disturbance, driving under the influence, job incompetence, fighting, juvenile drinking, and other well-known alcohol-related delicts in the United States. For the anthropologist to study drinking apart from the law would obscure these rather prominent deviations. However, it is even more important to recognize that research which focuses on drinking *only* as it conflicts with the law and its agencies--namely courts and mental health centers--tends to neglect those aspects of drinking which may be socially acceptable and not in conflict with the law. In this study we refer to this aspect of alcohol use as the "culture of drinking." Thus we are able to bring out the social-recreational importance of the normal or culturally acceptable patterns as background to examining certain aspects of the deviant or negatively sanctioned forms of alcohol use.

Sources of information for our "Drinking, Culture, and Law" project include: a drinking patterns survey, drinking-related cases reaching a North Carolina court, and patients with drinking-related problems at a

mental health center adjacent to the court house. Our objectives are to gain ethnographic information on "normal" drinking in North Carolina and to explore the nature of "problem" drinking as revealed in courtroom proceedings and mental health center activities. In this short article we focus on an analysis of results from the drinking patterns survey.

The drinking patterns survey consists primarily of responses to a questionnaire by a sample of 188 students at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.[2] In regard to age, the sample is very homogeneous; 183 out of 188 are in the 18 through 21 age categories. Homogeneity of age is important because in the drinking patterns questionnaire the students were asked to provide information on the current "culture of drinking" in their family environments of the 1970s. Nearly all of these students are close enough to their parental home environments to be good reporters of the drinking and abstinence patterns therein.

A little more than half of the respondents indicated that they are accustomed to drinking alcohol beverages in their parental homes. The differences between males and females are rather small. Fifty-six percent of the women reported drinking at their parental homes, and 48 percent of the males reported drinking. Sex of the respondents is evidently not a predictor, but drinking or abstinence of the male parent is a good predictor of drinking at home among children of both sexes (see Table 1). Only 4 percent of the home drinking respondents report an abstinent father.

Religious affiliation is a statistically significant predictor of drinking among both parents--particularly in regard to whether the father practices drinking or abstinence (see Tables 2 and 3). As would be expected, Baptists, who have historically supported Prohibition, have almost twice the proportion of abstainers found among other Protestant sects and nearly three times the proportion of abstainers found among non-Protestants for the male parents in our sample (see Table 2; Cahalan *et al.*; Sinclair).

In contrast to these religion-related abstinence patterns, what does the "culture of drinking" look like in those families in which the father and others have chosen to drink? That is, how often, where, and what do members of these families drink? Furthermore, what is the meaning, purpose, or function of drinking among these predominantly Carolinian families?

We found in the response patterns that daily drinking occurs among only 42 of the 133[3] fathers who drink (32%); occasional or one or two times per week drinking was reported for 47 of these 133 fathers (35%). This means that only 67 percent of the drinking fathers practice drinking with any degree of regularity. An even smaller percentage of "mothers who drink" drink regularly (24%). Mothers, in particular, tend to drink on special occasions (see Table 4). These sex differences in drinking patterns tend to exhibit parallels to Don Cahalan's survey findings for the nation and to conform to his findings specific to this region which Cahalan refers to as "East South Central."

Table 1. Home Drinking

Whether Father Drinks	College Student Drinks at Home		Total Number
	Yes	No	
No	N=4	N=50	54
Yes	N=92	N=38	130
Totals	N=96	N=88	184*

X^2=58.9

p < .001

*Four missing observations due to 4 members of the sample lacking fathers.

Table 2. Religion and Paternal Drinking

Whether Father Drinks	Father's Religion			Total Number
	Baptist	Other Protestant	Affiliations Other Than Protestant	
No	N=18	N=30	N=6	54
	46%	27%	17%	
Yes	N=21	N=79	N=30	130
	54%	73%	83%	
Totals	N=39	N=109	N=36	184*
	100%	100%	100%	

X^2 = 8.3

P < .05

*Four missing observations due to 4 members of the sample lacking fathers.

Table 3. Religion and Maternal Drinking

Whether Mother Drinks	Mother's Religion: Baptist	Other Protestant	Affiliations Other Than Protestant	Total Number
No	N=27	N=45	N=10	82
	61%	40%	32%	
Yes	N=17	N=67	N=21	105
	39%	60%	68%	
Totals	N=44	N=112	N=31	187
	100%	100%	100%	

$X^2 = 7.8$

$P < .05$

*One missing observation due to 1 member of the sample lacking a mother.

Certainly the context or situation is an important part of the culture of drinking in our sample. The results of our drinking patterns survey indicate that approximately half of the drinking fathers drink at home with the mother. Another fair amount of home drinking consists of the drinking father helping himself to a beer or mixed drink and being the sole partaker in the midst of the family. As might be expected, only a small proportion of mothers drink in the presence of the family while her husband abstains. Our data suggest that the male household head is customarily the initiator of drinking in the home (see Table 5).

Fifty-three of the 129 fathers who drink (41%) report use of a club for drinking. Yet relatively few reported utilization of public places--33 of 130 drinking fathers (25%). In other areas of the country where public drinking places accommodate the whole spectrum of social classes, we would expect much higher reporting of use of public drinking places. In some areas of the United States, there are a variety of public drinking houses catering to specific social classes, and in some western towns bars cater to a cross-section (see Clinard).

Table 4. Frequency of Drinking

	Parent	
	Father	Mother
Regularly	N=42	N=27
Occasionally	N=47	N=39
Periodically	N=25	N=24
On Special Occasions	N=19	N=24
None of These	N=41	N=68
Not Relevant (No father or mother)	N=4	N=1
No Response	N=10	N=5
Totals	N=188	N=188

Table 5. Context of Drinking*

	Parent	
	Father	Mother
Parent at Home Unaccompanied by others Drinking	N=52	N=21
Parent with Spouse	N=66	N=72
Parent at Private Club	N=53	N=42
Parent at Public Drinking Place	N=33	N=18
Parent with Friend	N=87	N=69
Parent at Party	N=92	N=80
No Response	N=5	N=1

*These contexts of drinking are not mutually exclusive. Consequently there is a great deal of overlap in the response patterns. N of Respondents = 188.

In Carolina towns there is an obvious dearth of public drinking places. In fact, there are towns of central Carolina--ranging in size 5,000 - 15,000 inhabitants--in which there is a total absence of taverns and bottled beer dispensing shops. The towns that do have commercial drinking places tend to have only pool-hall beer shops which are frequented exclusively by men of low income. Except for university towns in North Carolina, there are none of the ubiquitous taverns frequented by middle-income adults as are found in small towns in western United States and Canada. The sharpness of caste and class in North Carolina combined with religious resistance to drinking results in most drinking being confined to private places.

Furthermore, we can fairly safely infer that the large majority of those respondents who reported that one or more parents engage in public drinking were probably referring to "brown-bagging"--which is common among middle- and upper-income families in North Carolina. This practice of bringing a bottle of hard liquor so as to be able to have mixed drinks at a select restaurant and/or ordering wine with the meal would probably account for most of this reported public drinking.

The most likely occasion to drink among the adults represented in this sample is at a party or get-together in their own home. When asked where the parents of the respondents do their drinking, the sons and daughters reported that 57 of the 130 fathers who drink (71%) and 80 of 105 mothers who drink (76%) drink at parties or get-togethers in their own home. What we see clearly revealed in this data is that these families are largely oriented to special occasion drinking. Only a minority of these families have made drinking a part of the daily or weekly regimen (see Cahalan, 82-99 for parallel national findings).

To probe this regular versus special occasion distinction more precisely, we asked the respondents: "Which members of your family regularly (every day) or occasionally (one or two times per week) drink beer or wine *with* their evening meal?" The results are that there is a relatively small proportion of the respondents and their parents who drink wine or beer with their meals. This shows more precisely that drinking in these families tends to be a special occasion activity.

Regular drinking with meals, as we find central to the culture of drinking in Italy is marginal to the culture of drinking in the South and in the United States generally (see Lolli *et al.*). In the Italian culture of drinking, wine is central to shared meals; it is an essential part of the diet of Italian families.

Mark Keller, formerly the Director of the Yale Center of Alcohol Studies, has aptly summarized Giorgio Lolli's survey findings on "Food and Wine in Relation to Sobriety among Italians and Italian Americans":

> ...for Italians drinking is part of eating, even a form of eating, for wine is a food; that to the extent that the descendants of Italians in America retain ancestral cultural traditions, they drink with the same attitudes and in the same ways; and that the set of attitudes which does not separate drink from food is at least partly responsible for the relative sobriety of Italian drinking (a, XIV).

Lolli and his co-investigators found that 70 percent of the men and 94 percent of the women among the Italian citizens drank exclusively with meals. In contrast Lolli's "Alcohol and Italian Culture" research group found that in the United States wine at regular meal times occurred in the following proportions: 7 percent of the men and 16 percent of the women in the first generation Italian American group; 4 percent of the men and 11 percent of the women in the second and third generation group.

In our survey of Carolinian students, we found that 33 of 98 respondents who drink (34%) reported that they regularly or occasionally drink beer or wine with an evening meal. Among their parents they reported an equal percentage of 29 percent of drinking with meals by fathers and mothers who practice drinking generally.

In Italy, Lolli and his research associates found that wine at meals is shared by practically all families, whereas wine appears infrequently on the dining tables of second and third generation Italian Americans. Whereas citizens of Italy cited "health" and "tradition" as major reasons for their use of wine, the Italians who emigrated to America would most often cite "sociability" and "effect." Furthermore in contrasting Italian Americans with Italian citizens Lolli's field workers discovered that the sharp decrease in use of wine at meals by Italian Americans in New Haven was accompanied by an increase in the number of episodes of excessive drinking.

Currently in Canada and in the United States controlled drinking therapy projects are demonstrating success and thus gaining some attention among opinion leaders in the alcohol problems field (see Doherty; Ewing and Rouse; Mills *et al.*; Pattison; Sobell and Sobell). Heretofore the dominant mode of treatment of alcohol problems has been abstinence such as Alcoholics Annonymous and similar programs which rely on the "culture" and the "cultures of abstinence" for their models. However, if controlled drinking becomes a significant therapy trend, then the "culture" and "cultures of drinking" will become of paramount importance. For instance, the Italian model of moderate drinking embedded in the context of shared meals would no doubt, as Mark Keller (b, XVII) has suggested in his discussion of problem drinking in France and the United States serve as one of the "cultures of drinking" to emulate in designing educational and therapy practices for controlled drinking.

NOTES

[1]This ongoing study is funded by the University Research Council. Also research services have been provided by the Institute for Research in Social Science.

[2]This is a total sample from an introductory anthropology class in Spring Semester 1974. The sample is farily homogeneous with regard to home region and size of home town. One hundred and seventy-two out of 188 respondents are from southern United States. Nearly all of these southerners are from North Carolina. Only 4 respondents come from "hometowns" over 500,000. Forty-seven come from towns of 100,000 to 500,000; and 130 come from towns of under 100,000. In regard to ethnicity, 160 respondents out of 188 are Euro-American, 10 are Afro-American, and 18 are other. On the basis of the father's work status, middle class (professional-business), and upper class (high-level management) constitute 83 percent of this group. Lower class (laborers) and lower-lower class (unemployed laborers) constitute only 17 percent of this group of university students. There are 109 males, 78 females, and 1 unrecorded in this sample.

[3]The discrepancy between the total of 130 fathers who drink, reported in Tables 1, 2, and 3, and the total of 133 reported here, is the consequence of respondent error; i.e., 3 respondents who earlier reported that their father does not drink report that their father does drink on some occasions in response to the present question.

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*PERCEIVED ATTRIBUTES OF SUPERIOR TEACHERS (PAST): AN INQUIRY INTO THE GIVING OF TEACHER AWARDS**

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Recognition of distinguished achievement may be one way of celebrating a group's values and sustaining the drive to achieve them.[1] The Eagle Scout, the Player of the Week, the Teacher of the Year--these are cases in point. We do not know whether they are effective; whether the values they represent would be achieved in the absence of such recognition. But it may be that performances unattended degenerate just as an indifference to the air is a condition of pollution.

Teaching awards are farily recent, are made in widely varying ways and have a quite unknown--perhaps negligible--impact on teaching. Although a fourth to a third of all institutions of higher education in the United States give some recognition to outstanding teaching (however determined) this practice has seldom been examined. In this study, we examine 2,900 attributes ascribed to teachers nominated as superior by 978 persons, mostly students, in the spring semester, 1974, at UNC-Chapel Hill.

THE PROBLEMS POSED

Two obvious questions about superior teachers are: (1) What are they like? and (2) What accounts for the distinction between them and ordinary mortals? To answer the first we must describe the attributes, both singly and in combination, imputed by students to teachers they deem superior. The second and more interesting question asks what characteristics predict to

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*This is a truncated version of a progress report. Other information and supporting data are available from the authors on request.

superior teaching (if teaching awards, or number of nominations do indeed signal superior performance). Consider this second question, and other questions flowing from it. They emerge from our own observations and from work, variously pertinent, of others.[2]

1. Are there fields of instruction that select--or foster--superior teachers? 2. Is it age or youth that makes for effective instruction? 3. Is the evaluation of instruction a popularity contest in which good grades are traded for student applause? 4. Are those seen as superior teachers persons with heavier or lighter teaching loads? 5. With poorer--or better--publication records than their colleagues? 6. From departments largely committed to undergraduate, rather than graduate education? 7. Did the superior teacher have his undergraduate education in a small school renowned for high quality liberal arts education? 8. Is the likelihood of being nominated for a superior teacher award a function of exposure to more undergraduate students? 9. To what extent does a *combination* of characteristics--and each taken separately--account for number of nominations received (for a superior teacher award)?

These are not rhetorical questions. For the cerebral dexterity of the academician can produce at least two answers to each of them--including contradictory ones. We can summarize them as a series of hypotheses to be tested to the extent that our data permit.

	Independent Variable	Hypothesis: the target for testing
1.	Subject matter:	Nominee rank (number of nominations for distinguished teaching awards) will not vary by discipline.
2.	Experience:	Quality of teaching (registered in nominee rank) will peak in mid-career (as measured by age, rank, or years of service).
3.	Grading:	Nominee rank is not systematically related to percent of A's + B's given (or D's + F's).
4.	Load:	Nominee rank (or probability of nomination) is not systematically related to course or student load.
5.	Zero-sum Choice, research or teaching:	Nominee rank is inversely related to a measure of professional publication.
6.	Level of Department, Instructive, Graduate, UG:	Probability of nomination for distinguished teaching awards is inversely related to the Grad./UG course ratio.

Independent Variable	Hypothesis: the target for testing
7. Department Exposure to UG's:	Probability of nomination for distinguished teaching awards is positively related to number of UG courses offered in a department.
8. Type and Size of Nominee's UG School:	Probability of nomination for distinguished teaching awards is positively related to the reputation for excellence in instruction of the nominee's UG experience. And, probability of nomination for a distinguished teaching award is inversely related to size of nominee's UG school.
9. Combined Background Factors:	Interactional, Contextual, Personal.[3]

Few of these questions can be satisfactorily answered with the available data. But we can begin to reduce the range of ignorance about characteristics and conditions of good instruction. And perhaps we can check the adeqaucy of some of the stereotypes that displace knowledge about the cryptic process of teaching.

METHODS: DATA, CONTENT ANALYSIS, RELIABILITY, COMPARISON GROUPS, VARIABLES AND THEIR INDICES, MODES OF ANLAYSIS

The Data

This study exploited supporting statements made by students and faculty, mostly the former, in nominating a faculty member for an award for distinguished teaching. Eight such awards were made to full-time faculty members who had not received one within the past five years. A student-faculty committee solicited and evaluated nominations and made recommendations to the Chancellor. In 1974 there were 1,256 nominations. We treated 978 of these--less than the whole, since we sampled one-fifth of the nominations for an instructor who had 350 nominations.[4] These 978 respondents provided 2,900 characteristics they attributed to their nominees. Thus we coded, on an average, 3 traits per nominator.

Nominations were solicited by sending a letter and nominating ballot to all voting faculty, and to all undergraduates residing on campus.[5] Ballots could also be picked up at four locations on campus. The student newspaper publicized the process and encouraged nominations.

We cannot say whether or to what extent, nominations represent student or faculty views. We are quite sure that students living off campus were underrepresented among the nominators. Although our content analysis made no distinction between faculty and students, we doubt that this confounds matters since ballots made up only about 8 percent of all nominations.

Nominees were usually classified, in our analysis in three categories: 16 award winners (8 for each of two years), 44 runners-up (the next ranking 22, for each of two years), and all others, and a group of 60 controls chosen randomly from the faculty at large.

In sum, our data consist of: characteristics of teachers and their teaching imputed by nominators to award winners, runners-up and all others; together with selected bits of background data on the 60 top-ranked nominees (30 each, in 1972-73 and 1973-74) and on 60 controls.

Content Analysis and Measures of Reliability

The ballots for nominating teachers urged students to provide a supporting statement for their nominations. We analyzed the content of these statements (typically 50 words in length) using a 35-item coding scheme. The 35 items were divided into three major categories embracing teacher behaviors related to (i) teaching, (ii) the teacher as a person, (iii) the teacher as a professional in some field of study.

Of the 2,900 teacher characteristics coded, only 0.6 percent (17) were in the grand residual category ("responses not codable"). An additional 12.9 percent (363) were in one of the residual categories for the three major clusters of characteristics. Thus a total of 2,510 characteristics (or 86.5% of all characteristics mentioned) referred to a teaching/teacher characteristic codable under one of our 31 specific code categories.

We developed the coding scheme used in our content analysis by examining a sample of nominations to see what types of statements students made. The coding system is internally valid, reliable, detailed and as thoroughly analyzed as the data permit. That the coding categories emerged from analysis of the source data obviates some of the disadvantages of using fixed rating scales.

Eight versions of the coding scheme were evaluated for validity through the coding of random samples of ballots by four raters. We calculated percentage agreement between pairs of raters for each successive version of the coding scheme, making revisions to eliminate incompatible interpretations of responses. With each successive revision of the coding, the code book for the content analysis was appropriately revised.

Once formal coding began, we made two reliability checks on decisions made by the coder and two checkers. In addition, we made two checks of coder consistency at one week intervals. Given the elapsed time and the large number of items recoded it is unlikely that there was a contamination effect. The coefficients obtained were high enough to allow the conclusion that the coding was stable. (P=.8744, S=.8797 and ¶=.8675)

The first of the three reliability measures employed was P_o, the commonly used percentage-of-agreement between coders. Our second coefficient, developed by Bennett *et al.* introduces a correction factor for the number of categories in the coding scheme. Our third and most important measure, developed by Scott includes corrections for both the number of categories and their frequency of use.[6]

The inter-coder reliability- (¶) of the coding scheme, using all 35 coding categories (the most stringent case), is between .67 and .69 depending on which check is examined. As would be expected, the inter-coder reliability for clusters of the code categories is substantially higher than the item-by-item coefficient.

Comparison Groups

The object of the PAST study was not only to describe teachers (their behaviors and background) as perceived by students who nominated them for a teaching award; but also to ask how certain of the winners' background characteristics differed from those of non-winners and from traits of a control sample. In our analyses several different comparison groups were employed.

As to imputed teacher (or teaching) attributes, we can compare award winners (the top 8 in 1972-73 and 1973-74) with runners-up (the next 22, ranked by number of nominations, for both years) with all other nominees (1973-74, only).

We also have selected background traits enabling us to compare award winners in each of the two years, with runners-up (also for each of the two years) with a control group (N=60) drawn randomly from the population of faculty eligible for an award.[7] On these controls we have only background data--age, departmental affiliation, rank and the like.

Indices of Variables

The principal dependent variable in the PAST study is the rank ordering and classification of teachers by frequency with which they are judged by nominators to be superior teachers. PAST makes use of two types of independent variables. First, there are the imputed teacher attributes as embodied in the 35-item coding scheme used in the content analysis. The second sort of independent variable consists of background traits of the teachers. These include certain *contextual* factors such as departmental affiliation and teaching load; *personal*

factors--rank and age are examples; and factors affecting student-teacher *interaction* such as class size and grading patterns.

Modes of Analysis

To begin to understand imputed differences in teaching ability we used simple cross-tabulations of background characteristics. To the same end we used regression analysis to determine the amount of variance in nominee rank that could be explained by the background variables.

It became clear to us, rather tardily, that the more sophisticated analyses failed owing to the nature of our data. The coding sheet for a given nominee recorded, on the average, 3 attributes. All other items were coded as not mentioned. This meant that, on the average, 32 categories were coded 0 and 3 were coded 1 (meaning "present"). Two serious problems emerge, one of meaning and the other of manipulation. As to meaning, we cannot infer that an attribute coded 0 means that the nominator saw the nominee as lacking that trait, much less that its contrary is present. Our content analysis was based on categories which tapped only positive attributes thought by nominators to be marks of good teaching. Thus when a nominating ballot contained no mention of the teacher as "enthusiastic, lively, vigorous" (attribute #1), this could mean that the nominator thought the professor (a) not distinctively lively, (b) as being serene to dull, (c) that such traits were irrelevant to distinctively fine teaching.

Thus the failure to mention a trait is hard to interpret; and this also leads to problems in manipulating the data. Techniques such as correlation and cluster analysis treat zero as meaning the absence of an attribute and could not, therefore, be properly used. Moreover, cluster analysis would not produce interpretable results because of the very high number of zeros on each nominating ballot.

Hence we were limited in our analysis of the teacher characteristics to more descriptive techniques such as frequency distributions and cross-tabulations.

FINDINGS

(1) Description of the Perceived Attributes of the Superior Teacher

Faculty seen as superior are those who appear devoted to their subject matter, concerned about their students, and driven to bring the two together.

An analysis reveals that the most frequently mentioned attributes center around notions of teacher conscientiousness and competence (see Figure 1). The 3 most frequently mentioned categories (items 15, 1, and 23) point to concern for the transmission of material in a manner that enhances its mastery. Commitment to subject matter is conveyed by the enthusiasm with

which it is treated. Just under a fourth of the respondents supported their nominations by saying that the instructor was inspiring, stimulating, interesting. (15% mentioned related traits: liveliness, vigor, joy in teaching.) Concern for student mastery of course material informed responses of a third of the 978 nominators. And to that end they saw the professor as patient, readily accessible, willing to review difficult materials, and to set up review sessions. A related trait, respect for the student as a person, figured in statements by a fifth of the nominators. Thus, the degree of conscientiousness exhibited by a teacher is seen by his accessibility and helpfulness outside the classroom, as well as by a lively, stimulating presentation of material inside the classroom.

Enthusiasm for the subject, concern for the student: but in addition, these respondents linked perspiration to inspiration. Characteristics which underlie a notion of competence rank fourth and sixth (items 2 and 8) among the attributes. The better instructor, then is seen as hard-headed, both as to subject matter and the way he runs a course. Sixteen percent said that the nominated professor revealed a command of, and insight into the course materials; and 13 percent mentioned the instructor's unusual demands of himself as a teacher--careful preparation, meticulous organization of materials and the like. About 11 percent reported having been impelled to work beyond minimum requirements.

So, to be seen as superior, it seems essential that a teacher be conscientious. But s/he msut also present something of intellectual substance. On the other hand, a competent, rigorous instructor who is seen as unconcerned about students is perhaps as likely to go unheralded as the instructor who gives lively, entertaining lectures having little intellectual content.

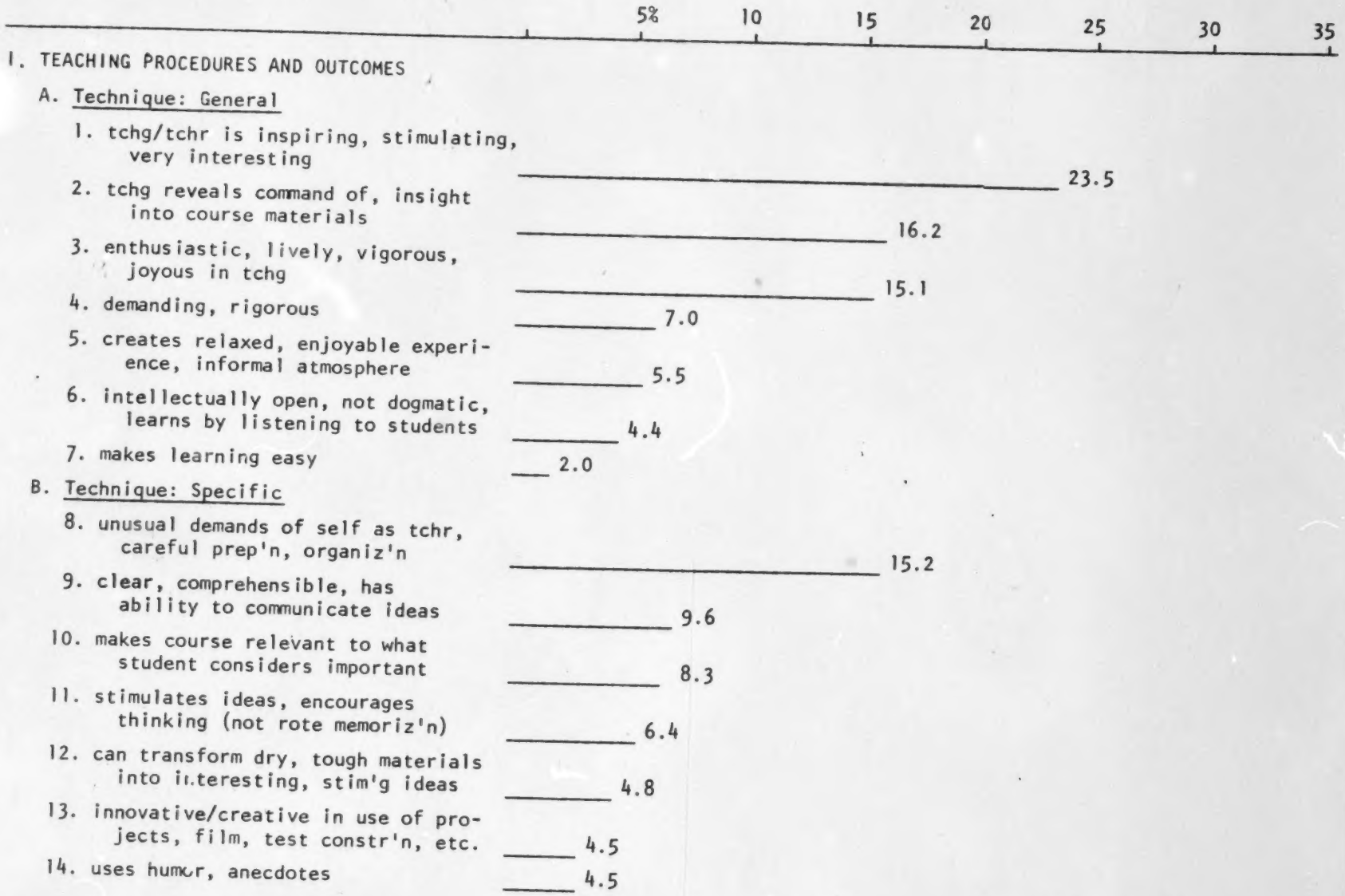
(2) Correlates of Perceived Superiority as a Teacher

Rate of nominations for distinguished teaching awards will not differ by department. An analysis of awards over a six-year period reveals marked differences between departments. Five departments were overrepresented by two or more awards: Chemistry, English, History, Political Science, and Religion.

Fewer nominators (but more than 10 percent of them) mentioned teacher's command of subject matter, enthusiasm in teaching, demands the teacher placed on him- or herself, unusual learnings, by student, in kind or degree, ability to stimulate student to work beyond minimum requirements, teacher's encouragement of student participation.

The attributes mentioned tend strongly to be those describing teaching itself (techniques, student-teacher relationships and outcomes) rather than attributes of the teacher-as-person or of teacher-as-professional. (The exception is one trait in the teacher-as-person category: "respect for, interest in student as person.")

Figure 1.


5%
10
15
20
25
30
35
I. TEACHING PROCEDURES AND OUTCOMES
A. Technique: General
1. tchg/tchr is inspiring, stimulating, very interesting
23.5
2. tchg reveals command of, insight into course materials
16.2
3. enthusiastic, lively, vigorous, joyous in tchg
15.1
4. demanding, rigorous
7.0
5. creates relaxed, enjoyable experience, informal atmosphere
5.5
6. intellectually open, not dogmatic, learns by listening to students
4.4
7. makes learning easy
2.0
B. Technique: Specific
8. unusual demands of self as tchr, careful prep'n, organiz'n
15.2
9. clear, comprehensible, has ability to communicate ideas
9.6
10. makes course relevant to what student considers important
8.3
11. stimulates ideas, encourages thinking (not rote memoriz'n)
6.4
12. can transform dry, tough materials into interesting, stim'g ideas
4.8
13. innovative/creative in use of projects, film, test constr'n, etc.
4.5
14. uses humor, anecdotes
4.5

C. Teacher-Student Relationship

15. concerned about student's mastery of course material: helpful, patient, willing to clarify, accessible, sets up review sessions, establishes good rapport in learning situation — 33.6
16. encourages student participation — 10.8
17. fair in treatment of students (includes grading) — 8.9
18. helpful adviser on courses, curriculum, career — 2.8

D. Outcomes of Teaching

19. unusual learnings (in degree, or type or application): learned unusually much, developed skills, got new perspectives on/from materials of the course, developed as a person, learned material useful in other courses — 11.5
20. inspired to work beyond minimum requirements, to do his/her best, enjoys/wants to do so — 10.9
21. student uses instructor as model — 0.9
23. teaching characteristics not otherwise codable — 26.8

II. TEACHER AS A /PERSON/

23. respect for, interest in student as a person — 19.5
24. warm, friendly, personable — 7.8
25. understanding/sympathy for young people/students — 4.9
26. sincere, honest, straightforward — 1.9

(continued)

Figure 1 (continued)

5% 10 15 20 25 30 35

27. enthusiastic, vigorous--lively as a person ___ 0.5

28. teacher-as-a-person characteristics not otherwise codable _____ 7.9

III. TEACHER AS A /PROFESSIONAL/

A. Competence

29. thorough knowledge/mastery of his/her field _____ 7.3

30. applies prof'n in service of community/university _____ 4.8

31 mentions contrib'ns to his/her field through public'ns research ____ 1.6

B. Interest in Profession

32. generates excitement in his/her field beyond course _____ 2.2

33. shows obvious excitement about his/her field of study _____ 2.0

34. teacher-as-professional not otherwise codable _____ 3.6

responses not codable in I, II, or III ____ 1.7

If one can distill these findings we think it might be done this way. The teacher seen as superior is one who is clearly competent in his field, concerned for his students' intellectual growth and enthusiastic in bringing field and students together.

Now to the second question: What are the correlates of perceived superiority as a teacher?

First, there are marked differences by department, but no such variation by discipline. Nonetheless, certain departmental characteristics (independent of field) do correlate with nominee rank. Faculty more often nominated tend (slightly) to be in departments with more undergraduate offerings and with lesser stress on professional training--i.e., on graduate instruction.

As to load--number of courses and number of students carried during the year--winners and runners-up carry the heavier burden. (This is an other-things-equal statement, which is not, of course, the case. The burden of load may not be simply a function of courses and students carried.)

Our notion that quality of teaching (registered in nominee rank) would peak in mid-career was generally supported. Teachers seen as superior are likely to be the academically middle-aged, those between 35 and 55. Associate Professors tend to be overrepresented. Magnitudes of the differences are not great. But these and other data (such as those on grading) lead us to this conclusion. Runners-up, the near misses for awards, tend to be warm and spontaneous spirits heavily committed to teaching as a mission. But for top performance as teachers, hardness of head must be added to warmth of heart. This combination seems to be a feature of mid-career and is associated with a slightly tougher grading pattern and an increase in publication.

About grading (and the popularity contest explanation of award-winning) we find no appreciable difference between award winners and a control sample in giving high or low grades. Runners-up do tend to give higher grades than either the winners or the control sample.

The notion that research and publication are incompatible with superior teaching is not supported by such data as we have. Most teachers nominated for awards (at each rank) publish as much or more than their non-noninated department colleagues of the same rank.

As to size and type of nominee's undergraduate school, we found no evidence (although our measures were extremely crude) that these experiences affect the quality of teaching in later years.

We used regression analysis to determine how much of the total variance in nominee rank can be accounted for by a single attribute (or background trait) or by a cluster of them. Thus we can determine which characteristics are more and which less important in determining a teacher's rank.

Regressing background traits on nominee rank (60 nominees and the 60 controls) we see that these characteristics account for 23.49 percent of the differences in teachers' rank (see Table 1). Among these traints, class size (a contextual effect) accounts for most variance: and least variance is explained by age of instructor, total number of courses taught at the undergraduate level (departmental exposure), and percent of grades given that are low.

One can think of the 10 background traits as of three sorts: interactional, personal, and contextual. Interactional characteristics are those which affect the teacher's direct dealings with students: class size, course load, grades. Contextual variables affect the number and type of interactions a teacher will have (department, proportion of courses taught at the UG level, and total number of UG courses offered by the department). Personal traits are of course those that the teacher brings to the teaching situation and which, for various reasons, may be thought to affect teaching performance and student reaction: age, years of service, and academic rank. Of the three classes of characteristics, we guessed that the interactional set would be the most important since it represents the process of give and take that mediates the effect of personal and contextual factors. Table 1 confirms this notion. The interactional factor accounts for most variance, the personal factor for least.

As we have seen, the total variance accounted for by background characteristics is about 24 percent. One might assume that the imputed teaching attributes would explain a sizeable part of the remaining variance. So we looked at the distribution of attributes, coded in 35 categories, by nominee rank for the top 30 faculty members nominated in 1973-74.[8] A multiple regression analysis of teacher attributes reveals that they account for only 5.75 percent of the variance in nominee rank.

In sum, we can say, tentatively, that background traits seem more useful in predicting a teacher's perceived distinction than are the imputed teacher characteristics. And among the background traits those explaining most variance in nominee rank are those bearing on face-to-face interaction between students and teachers. Finally, the bulk of the variance in nominee rank remains unexplained. We have missed an unknown number of attributes and characteristics that contribute to the perceived distinction of an instructor's teaching.

Table 1. Percent of Variance in Nominee Rank Accounted for by Background Characteristics of Teachers Nominated for an Award, UNC-CH 1972-73 and 1973-74.

Background (and Contextual) Characteristics and Imputed Teacher Attributes	Percent of Variance in Nominee Rank Accounted For	Significance Level: P
Background Characteristics (23.45%; p = .05)		
Interactional	14.4%	.001
Class size	9.59	.01
Percent A's + B's	4.51	.02
Course load	1.17	.05
Percent C's + D's + F's	.23	.10
Contextual	8.4%	.10
Ratio of all courses taught that are undergraduate	4.98	.02
Department	4.27	.01
Departmental exposure (UG courses offered by Dept.)	.0005	.15
Personal	2.3%	.10
Academic rank	2.27	.05
Years of service at UNC-CH	1.03	.07
Age	.88	.10

NOTES

[1] If there is a surface plausibility to the notion that selective rewards sustain group values (and the behavior to achieve them) this is likely to be the case only under certain conditions. Rewarding the select few may also be dysfunctional, creating strain or tension in the organization. This can be expected when criteria for achievement are ambiguous, or the measurement of achievement of the valued end is poor or cryptic. There is no question as to the desired end or the degree of its achievement when Hank Aaron breaks Babe Ruth's homerun record. But the case is by no means so clear when a teacher win's an award for the "inspirational instruction of undergraduates" (Moore and Tumin).

[2] This is not, of course, the first time such questions have been asked. Still, the present study is one of the few that sheds any light on teacher behavior and background characteristics of the teachers nominated for and receiving awards. Ahern's dissertation and Guthrie *et al.*, are the only prior studies we have found that present data on teachers. Ahern (20) concluded that his work "...appears to be a pilot study." His literature search included the Review of Educational Research, The Educational Index, The Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Dissertation Abstracts and the 1963 edition of the Handbook of Research on Teaching. We found very few useful references on teaching awards in such other standard sources as Trent and Cohen, Deighton, and the U.S. Educational Resources Information Center publications (1964-1975). Descriptive information on teaching awards can be obtained from Astin and Lee, and Wellemeyer. A more thorough literature review is omitted here, for lack of space. It is included in a longer verson of this paper, 197 pges, which is available at cost (1.00). Write the last-listed author for the longer version.

[3] When we refer to background characteristics we refer to all variables, apart from the attributes imputed to the teacher by nominators. Actually the background characteristics include, beyond personal traits, aspects of the context within which the teacher works; and factors touching his mode of interaction with students.

[4] One wonders, of course, about ballot box stuffing. We know that electioneering occurred in one instance, the case where a teacher was nominated more than 300 times. This was the exception, and an obvious one. But a look at ballots nominating a given faculty member shows that nominators were not voting twice, simple though it would have been to do so. We also note that faculty seem no more likely than students to write statements in support of their nominees, although there is some slight tendency for faculty comments to be longer.

[5] In the preceding year, 1972-73, there were 729 nominating ballots. Means of soliciting nominations differed slightly in 1972-73. Ballots were mailed to all voting faculty, to the General College and Arts and Sciences advisers,

to all students in several honorary societies and to a random sampling of undergraduates. They could also be picked up at several campus locations. We estimate that about 20 percent of the ballots came from faculty (in contrast to 8 percent in '73-'74).

[6]The formulae for the three coefficients are as follows: P_o is the number of judgments on which coders agree divided by the total number of judgments made by both coders; this proportion is expressed as a decimal and read as "percent agreement." S is computed as $\frac{k}{k-1}(P_o - \frac{1}{k})$ where k is the number of categories used in the coding scheme. ¶ is computed by $\frac{P_o - P_e}{1 - P_e}$ where P_e is the percent agreement to be expected by chance and is defined by $P_e = \sum_{i=1}^{k} P_i^2$ where k equals the number of categories used and P_i is the proportion of the entire sample which falls into the ith category. ¶ was developed by W.A. Scott; S was developed by E.M. Bennet and colleagues. In an extensive article on content analysis, Ole R. Holsti states that ". . . Scott's formula, which produces a conservative estimate of reliability, appears to be the most useful. . ." of those designed for content analysis and discussed by him" (66).

[7]The protection of our subjects was always salient in our thinking. The anonymity of all teachers studied in this project was protected by (1) the use of group data, (2) the withholding of individual names--although those of award winners are of course a matter of public record, and (3) the blind selection of controls.

[8]The previous regression analysis included a control group (N=60) on whom we had background data. But since they had not been nominated, they had no imputed teaching attributes and could not be used in the present analysis. In this instance, then, we are using only the top-ranking (1 through 30) nominees for 1973-74. Thus the two regression analyses are not strictly comparable since they are based on different populations.

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